

# THE NATIONAL REGISTER.

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*Contents of this No. of the National Register*

ORIGINAL.—Editors' Cabinet,—Spain and the Florida Treaty, 189.—To the people of the United States, 190.

SELECTED.—Foreign news, &c. 177. Extracts from Campbell's Specimens of the British Poets, comprising Chatterton, Collins, and Goldsmith, 178. Nautical Experiment, 179. Western Commerce, 180. Sunshine Friends, 181. Official Document, on additional Military Academies, 182. Paine's Essay on the Yellow Fever, 186. Literary Curiosity, 191. Various Items, 192.

*Official Notices, &c.*

Col. TOWSON, lately appointed Paymaster General of the U. S. States Army, has commenced the duties of his office.

The Yellowstone expedition will take up winter quarters at the Council Bluffs.

Gen. MILLER, appointed Governor of the Arkansas Territory, is now in this city. He has taken apartments at Strother's hotel.

The U. S. frigate Congress, Captain HENLEY, has been heard from in lat. 16 deg. 13 min. N. on the 10th of June—all well.

Col. M'MINN has been re-elected Governor of Tennessee, by a large majority.

GEO. POINDEXTER, has been elected Governor of Mississippi, and GEO. RANKIN is chosen his successor in Congress.

At the recent commencement of Yale College, the degree of L. L. D. was conferred on His Excellency Oliver Wolcott, Governor of Connecticut, Hon. James Gould, of Litchfield, and Hon. Stephen Elliot, of South Carolina.

**CONGRESSIONAL ELECTION**

**IN NORTH CAROLINA.**

Jesse Slocumb,	Weldon Edwards,
Lemuel Sawyer,	Thomas Settle,
Thomas H. Hall,	William Davidson,
Charles Hooks,	Lewis Williams,
H. G. Burton,	Charles Fisher,
John Culpepper,	Felix Walker.
J. S. Smith,	

NOTE.—Except three, all the former members of this delegation are re-elected; to wit: Charles Hooks in the place of James Owen, H. G. Burton in the place of J. H. Bryan, and John Culpepper in the place of James Stewart.

St. Louis (Missouri) papers of the 18th August, state that Mr. Scott, the former delegate to Congress, is re-elected. The total number of votes taken in the territory only amounted to 2,533, to wit:

For Mr. Scott,	1563
For Mr. Hammond,	970

Majority for Mr. Scott, 593

A New York paper of Sept. 9th, says, We are happy to have it in our power to state, that the Secretary of the Navy is so far recovered from his late illness, that there is every prospect of his recovery in a few days.—He is now at the country seat of the Vice President, on Staten Island.

PETER LAIDLAW, Esq. is appointed Dutch Consul at New Orleans.

The citizens of Keene gave a dinner to commodore Bainbridge lately. The honours which our citizens pay to brave men, they pay to themselves and their country.

**FROM SPAIN.**

NEW YORK, Sept. 9.—By the Augusta Packet ship Amity, we have received our London papers up to the 29th of July inclusive—Liverpool to the 1st of August.

LIVERPOOL, July 31.—The operations in the cotton market have been on a very extensive scale, the total sales amounting to 49,900 bags, and prices of all descriptions have improved 3-4d a 4 1 1-2d per lb. The demand having principally run upon American cotton, these descriptions have realized the greatest advance.

LONDON, July 29.—Letters from Madrid, dated the 10th inst. mention, that Don Louis Onis, the late Spanish Envoy in the United States, the negotiator of the Florida Treaty, and the expected successor of Casa Irujo, had been arrested in Valladolid, where, it will be remembered, he had received orders to stop, on his way from Paris to the capital. Casa Irujo had been conveyed a prisoner from Avila to the convent of Miravet, which, we believe, is situated in a secluded spot, not far from Avila.

Three judges, under the immediate superintendence of the king, have been commissioned to investigate the charges brought against both Irujo and Onis. King Ferdinand seems determined to make an attempt to exculpate himself, at least as far as the public is concerned, from any blame in the Florida transaction.

A letter from Cadiz, dated 6th July, mentions, that 12 sail of transports, with troops for the West Indies, were ordered to sail, viz. 6 French vessels, 2 Russian, 2 Spanish, and 2 English. Their destination was kept profound secret, though it was given out they were intended for Havana, in consequence of the misunderstanding respecting the Florida Treaty. This body of men has been detached from the grand expedition, which, it was thought could not sail before September.

By information received here last week, the above troops, amounting to three thousand, have reached the Havana.

Letters received from Gibraltar, dated 9th inst. state, that an alarming revolution had broken out at Cadiz. The troops had refused to embark for South America.

The particulars are.—That gen. G'Donnell, the commander in chief, having no faith in the loyalty of his army, consisting of 20,000 men, privately sounded them, himself affecting to be disaffected, found 15,000 ready to join him in a plot against the king: he then ordered a review, and by a stratagem having furnished them with blank cartridges, and the other 5,000 [loyal] with ball, he commanded the 15,000 to ground arms, arrested their officers, and permitted the men to disperse, who saw they were basely betrayed. The king rewarded O'Donnell for this service by conferring on him an order of knighthood; in approval of his consummate duplicity.

The grand Cadiz expedition for South America has thus proved completely abortive.

Late accounts from St. Helena state that Buonaparte is more closely watched than ever; and that he is daily becoming more reserved and even sulky, and refuses to see visitors.

## FOR THE NATIONAL REGISTER.

CAMPBELL has lately given to the world another work of superior merit, entitled "*Specimens of the British Poets.*" Mr. CAMPBELL is himself a poet of the first order, and may therefore be supposed to have that fine tact, and delicate taste, necessary to enable an editor to select with judgment, and comment with skill. We have been highly gratified with his sketches of the poets who have preceded him. Their peculiarities and respective powers are delineated with a very nice and masterly pencil—For the pleasure of such of our readers as may not have seen the work, we give the following extracts:

## SKETCH OF CHATTERTON

"When we conceive," says Mr. C. "the inspired boy transporting himself in imagination back to the days of his fictitious Rowley, embodying his ideal character, and giving to airy nothing a 'local habitation and a name,' we may forget the impostor in the enthusiast, and forgive the falsehood of his reverie for its beauty and ingenuity. One of his companions has described the air of rapture and inspiration with which he used to repeat his passages from Rowley, and the delight which he took to contemplate the church of St. Mary Redcliffe, while it awoke the associations of antiquity in his romantic mind. There was one spot in particular, full in view of the church, where he would often lay himself down, and fix his eyes, as it were, in a trance. On Sundays, as long as day light lasted, he would walk alone in the country around Bristol, taking drawings of churches, or other objects that struck his imagination.

"During the few months of his existence in London, his letters to his mother and sister, which were always accompanied with presents, expressed the most joyous anticipations. But suddenly all the flush of his gay hopes and busy projects terminated in despair. The particular causes which led to his catastrophe have not been distinctly traced. His own descriptions of his prospects were but little to be trusted; for while apparently exchanging his shadowy visions of Rowley for the real adventures of life, he was still moving under the spell of an imagination that saw every thing in exaggerated colours. Out of this dream he was at length awakened, when he found that he had miscalculated the changes of patronage, and the profits of literary labour.

"The heart which can peruse the fate of Chatterton without being moved, is little to be envied for its tranquillity; but the intellects of those men must be as deficient as their hearts are uncharitable, who, confounding all shades of moral distinction, have ranked his literary fiction of Rowley in the same class of crimes with pecuniary forgery, and have calculated that if he had not died by his own hand, he would have probably ended his days upon a gallows. This disgusting sentence has been pronounced upon a youth who was exemplary for severe study, temperance, and natural affection. His Rowlean forgery must indeed be pronounced improper by the general law which condemns all falsifications of history; but it deprived no man of his fame; it had no sacrilegious interference with the memory of departed genius; it had not, like Lau-

der's imposture, any malignant motive, to rob a party or a country, of a name which was its pride and ornament.

"Setting aside the opinion of those uncharitable biographers, whose imaginations have conducted him to the gibbet, it may be owned that his unformed character exhibited strong and conflicting elements of good and evil. Even the momentary project of the infidel boy to become a methodist preacher, betrays an obliquity of design, and a contempt of human credulity that is not very amiable. But had he been spared, his pride and ambition would have come to flow in their proper channels; his understanding would have taught him the practical value of truth, and the dignity of virtue; and he would have despised artifice, when he had felt the strength and security of wisdom. In estimating the promises of his genius, I would rather lean to the utmost enthusiasm of his admirers, than to the cold opinion of those, who are afraid of being blinded to the defects of the poems attributed to Rowley, by the vise of obsolete phraseology which is thrown over them.

"The inequality of Chatterton's various productions may be compared to the disproportions of the ungrown giant. His works had nothing of the definite neatness of that precocious talent which stops short in early maturity. His thirst for knowledge was that of a being taught by instinct to lay up materials for the exercise of great and undeveloped powers. Even in his favorite maxim, pushed it might be to hyperbole, that a man by abstinence and perseverance might accomplish whatever he pleased, may be traced the indications of a genius which nature had meant to achieve works of immortality. Tasso alone can be compared to him as a juvenal prodigy. No English poet ever equalled him at the same age."

## SKETCH OF COLLINS.

"Collins published his Oriental Eclogues whilst at college, and his lyrical poetry at the age of 22. Those works will abide comparison with whatever Milton wrote under the age of 30. If they have rather less exuberant wealth of geniuses they exhibit more exquisite touches of pathos. Like Milton, he leads us into the haunted ground of imagination; like him, he has the rich economy of expression haloed with thought, which by single or few words, often hints entire pictures to the imagination. In what short and simple terms, for instance, does he open a wide and majestic landscape to the mind, such as we might view from Benlomond or Snowden, when he speaks of the hut

"That from some mountain's side

"Views wild and swelling floods"

And in the line "Where faint and sickly winds for ever howl around," he does not merely seem to describe the sultry desert, but brings it home to the senses.

"A cloud of obscurity sometimes rests on his highest conceptions, arising from the fineness of his associations, and the daring sweep of his allusions; but the shadow is transitory, and interferes very little with the light of his imagery, or the warmth of his feelings. The absence of even this speck of mysticism from his Ode on the Passions, is perhaps the happy circumstance that secured its unbounded popularity. Nothing is common place in Collins. The pastoral elegy, which is insipid in all other English hands, assumes in his a touching interest, and a picturesque air of novelty. It seems that he himself ultimately undervalued those

eclogues, as deficient in characteristic manners; but surely no just reader of them cares any more about this circumstance than about the authenticity of the tale of Troy.

" In his Ode to Fear he hints at his dramatic ambition, and he planned several tragedies. Had he lived to adorn and enjoy existence, it is not easy to conceive his sensitive spirit and harmonious ear descending to mediocrity in any path of poetry; yet it may be doubted if his mind had not a passion for the visionary and remote forms of imagination too strong and exclusive for the general purposes of the drama. His genius loved to breathe rather in the preternatural and ideal element of poetry, than in the atmosphere of imitation, which lies closest to real life; and his notions of poetical excellence, whatever vows he might address to the manners, were still tending to the vast, the undefinable, and the abstract. Certainly, however, he carried sensibility and tenderness into the highest regions of abstracted thought: his enthusiasm spreads a glow even amongst 'the shadowy tribes of mind,' and his allegory is as sensible to the heart as it is visible to the fancy."

#### SKETCH OF GOLDSMITH.

" Goldsmith's poetry enjoys a calm and steady popularity. It insures us, indeed, with no admiration of daring design, or of fertile invention; but it presents, within its narrow limits, a distinct and unbroken view of poetical delightfulness. His descriptions and sentiments have the pure zest of nature. He is refined without false delicacy, and correct without insipidity. Perhaps there is an intellectual composure in his manner, which may, in some passages he said to approach to the reserved and prosaic, but he unbends from this graver strain of reflection, to tenderness, and even to playfulness, with an ease and grace almost exclusively his own; and connects extensive views of the happiness and interests of society, with pictures of life, that touch the heart by their familiarity. His language is certainly simple, though it is not cast in a rugged or careless mould. He is no disciple of the gaunt and famished school of simplicity. Deliberately as he wrote, he cannot be accused of wanting natural and idiomatic expression; but still it is select and refined expression. He uses the ornaments which must always distinguish true poetry from prose; and when he adopts colloquial plainness, it is with the with the utmost care and skill, to avoid a vulgar humility. There is more of this sustained simplicity, of this chaste economy and choice of words, attainable, or desirable as a standard for every writer of rhyme. In extensive narrative poems such a style would be too difficult. There is a noble propriety even in the careless strength of great poems as in the roughness of castle walls; and, generally speaking, where there is a long course of story, or observation of life to be pursued, such exquisite touches as those of Goldsmith would be too costly materials for sustaining it. The tendency towards abstracted observation in his poetry agrees peculiarly with the compendious form of expression which he studied; whilst the homefelt joys on which his fancy loved to repose, required at once the chastest and sweetest colours of language to make them harmonize with the dignity of a philosophical poem. His whole manner has a still depth of feeling and reflection, which gives back the image of nature unruffled and minutely. He has no redundant thoughts or false transports; but seems, on every occasion, to have weighed the impulse to which he surrenders

ed himself. Whatever ardour or casual felicities he may have thus sacrificed, he gained a high degree of purity and self-possession. His chaste pathos makes him an insinuating moralist, and throws a charm of Claude-like softness over his descriptions of homely objects, that would seem only fit to be the subjects of Dutch painting. But his quiet enthusiasm leads the affections to humble things, without a vulgar association; and he inspires us with a fondness to trace the simplest recollections of Auburn, till we count the furniture of its ale-house, and listen to the 'varnished clock that clicked behind the door.'

" Although Goldsmith has not examined all the points and bearings of the question suggested by the changes in society which were passing before his eyes, he has strongly and affectingly pointed out the immediate evils with which those changes were pregnant. Nor while the picture of Auburn delights the fancy, does it make an useless appeal to our moral sentiments. It may be well sometimes that society, in the very pride and triumph of its improvement, should be taught to pause and look back upon its former steps; to count the virtues that have been lost, or the victims that have been sacrificed by it changes. Whatever may be, the calculations of the political economist as to ultimate effects, the circumstance of agricultural wealth being thrown into large masses, and of the small farmer exiled from his scanty domain, foreboded a baneful influence on the dependent character of the peasantry, which it is by no means clear that subsequent events have proved to be either slight or imaginary."

#### IMPORTANT NAUTICAL EXPERIMENT.

*From a late London paper.*

On Wednesday last Mr. Trengrouse from Cornwall, made an experiment with his apparatus for preserving lives in cases of shipwreck on the Serpentine River, at the station of the Humane Society, before Mr. Pettigrew, its Secretary, and many members of that honorable Institution—his royal highness the Duke of Kent was not present, as had been expected, owing, we suppose, to the happy confinement of her royal highness the Duchess.

Mr. Trengrouse before he began his experiment first, stated, that various calculations had been made of the numbers of British lives lost through shipwreck the lowest of which that had come under his notice exceeded 3000 annually!—He had himself witnessed many shipwrecks, and among others that of his majesty's ship Anson, when upwards of 100 of her officers and men prematurely perished within a few yards of the shore; and that this circumstance which occurred in 1807, led him to contrive means to prevent such excessive waste of human life, that he was still pursuing his plan and had matured it so far as to produce the apparatus we were then looking at, and which from its portability, (being all contained in a small chest) was calculated for and intended to become a convenient part of every vessel's equipment, thus putting the means of preservation into the seamen's own hands, and thereby enabling them to assist themselves wherever or whenever distress might assail them.

His method of communicating a rope is as simple so that it may be done between ships at sea, as well as in cases of vessels stranding. Vessels having the apparatus on board may be enabled to save persons in a state of foundering, when the weather precludes intercourse by a boat, or the vessels nearing

each other.

Mr. T. fired two small rockets, with lines attached to them, neither of which went across the water but shewed the principle of his plan and went far enough indeed to have communicated with the scores of cases which have recently occurred on our own coasts—The wind blew nearly across the direction of the rockets, and also very fresh, but it did not appear to alter their course, until one exploded, when it went considerably to leeward, and by that circumstance shewed the advantage of having the invention on board, as the rocket, being thrown from a vessel standing upon a lee shore must be necessarily very materially assisted by the wind in opening the wished for communication.

Mr. T. then fired a large rocket which went in fine style to a considerable distance over the lofty trees on the opposite side of the river, taking with it one ball of line, upwards of 200 yards long, and great part of another the line was of that size and strength as enabled a man who was in a boat about the middle of the river, to haul the boat to shore. By this line a larger one (from a reel in the apparatus *c'est*) was hauled across the river by the persons on the opposite shore, and by it a ship's hawser, which was found to be rather short, but being strengthened, it was strained from two trees across the water, and two rollers applied (which are so constructed, as to be put on after the rope was fast at each end,) and obtained great applause from several naval officers, who minutely examined them. To the hooks of the rollers was suspended a chaise volante, into which a man got, having on one of Mr. T.'s life spencers (being a sort of cork jacket, of his own contrivance,) in this he was hauled along the rope with great rapidity, till about half way across the river, when, either through some defect or by some accident, the hauling line broke, and prevented further process in this part of the experiment. The man then disengaged himself from the chaise, and the buoyancy of the spencer kept him, head and shoulders, above water; he then swam about, and afterwards got into a boat and rowed very freely; shewing that the spencer being on did not materially interrupt the use of his limbs in the water or out of it; while its buoyancy affords preservation from drowning, and its construction protects the body from blows of floating wreck, or from blows against rocks, &c.

Mr. T.'s missile line, was also highly approved of which admits of being projected to some considerable distance, from the very advantageous manner of his arranging the line. This little simple invention commanded great applause from the naval gentlemen present, among whom, we believe, were lord Townsend, captain Hawker, Marryatt, &c.—The line was projected on the river by one of these gentlemen which proved, it may be rendered a preservative in cases of boats upsetting in harbor, or passing from one vessel to another, or alongside, or of men falling overboard, &c.

#### WESTERN COMMERCE.

FROM THE CINCINNATI ADVERTISER, AUGUST 17.

The discovery of the steam navigation is an important era in the history of commerce. To the western states of America, its benefits will be incalculable great. It is the opening of a scene of which, at present, we can have but faint conceptions. The facilities which it affords in communicating with New Orleans, have already wrought a powerful change in the character of our local trans-

actions—and its effects will go to produce entire new calculations and new views in whatever relates to this great object. The most satisfactory experiments have removed all fears with respect to the perfect safety and speed of steam boats in traversing the great Atlantic; and to suggest a doubt of their coming hereafter into general use among commercial nations in their communications with each other, would be absurd.

The distance of the interior parts of America from the ocean, has hitherto been considered a serious objection to the country itself. The known character of its climate and soil was not of sufficient importance in the opinion of many, to balance the advantages of easy access to the ocean. But the complexion of things will soon undergo a material change. All those objections and prejudices will shortly vanish before the magic influence of genius, and enterprise; and our eastern brethren will bear, with wonder and astonishment, that our western cities resound with the exhilarating echoes of foreign commerce; and that they are in a way to participate freely in the aggrandizement that usually follows in her train. Nor can we doubt that the operation of these things will allure, to our shores men of all professions and pursuits.

Where can arise the objection to the plan of freighting steam boats at all our western towns that are well situated, and opening a direct communication with the West India Islands? To say this can not be done, would be to make a declaration in defiance of truth and experience. From the fairest computation that can be made a good boat would run from Cincinnati to Havanna in twelve days, allowing ten days to discharge and take in a cargo, which would return in twenty more, which would make forty-two days; but as there might be accidents and detentions, a calculation of fifty days out and home, would be a reasonable one. So far, then as profits accrue from commercial transactions, they would be exclusively enjoyed at home. And since our country furnishes every article of subsistence which the inhabitants of Cuba, or any other island, can covet, why shall we not transport to them our valuable surplus produce, and receive in exchange either gold and silver, which is their only medium, or such other articles as would be an equivalent; and for which there will be neither end nor measure in the demand? And if this can be done, and by so doing, open a door of immense emolument to our own particular district, why shall it not be done? Why shall not coffee, and rice, and molasses, and liquors and indigo, and tropical fruits and many other articles, be brought directly from those countries which produced them, instead of seeing them in other markets at an enhanced price and often of bad qualities? Why shall we not carry our own produce to market, instead of making others the carriers? Why shall we not have the whole benefits arising from outfit and adventures, in place of a part? Why shall we submit to the policy of building up other cities at the expense of our own? And why should we be the tributaries of New Orleans' speculators, when we could more beneficially pass them by, regardless of their flattering, but deceptive allurements?

It certainly does appear evident to our understanding, that a most important and lucrative intercourse can be opened, at least, with the island of Cuba, if not with several of the other large, and populous islands; nor are we able to perceive wherein it would not prove highly beneficial. In

addition to many other articles, we have the finest flour, and the most nutritious corn meal in the world; and there could be no difficulty in transporting it fresh in a voyage of a few days. We have wealth and skill enough, to make experiments that can hardly fail to result in liberal rewards. The West India trade has always been very profitable when prudently conducted. Our soil is capable of producing infinite quantities of the best kinds of produce; and in return, the treasures of the Spanish provinces and the islands can be laid at our feet.

Our noble steam-boats may soon be seen communicating with the Gulf of Mexico and the Caribbean sea; and there is little doubt we shall become as much accustomed to the arrivals and departures of our vessels at and from foreign ports, as the people of the Atlantic towns.

#### SUNSHINE FRIENDS.

MR. EDITOR,

The following extract from one of the volumes of that fund of entertaining and marvellous adventure, "*the Arabian Nights*," is so perfectly descriptive of *modern friendship*, that I hope you will give it a place in your paper, as a warning to the few *Noureddins* among us, and as a *mirror* to the host of interested, parasitical, time servers, which infest every community.

B.

"The friends of Noureddin were *very constant* at his table, and lost no opportunity of profiting by his easy temper. They were ever praising and flattering him, and pretending to discover some virtue or grace in the most trifling action. But especially they never neglected to extol to the skies every thing that belonged to him, and indeed they found their account in doing so. "Sir," said one of them, "I passed the other day by the estate you have in such a place; nothing can be more magnificent or better furnished than the house; and the garden belonging to it is an absolute paradise of delights." "I am quite charmed that you are pleased with it," answered Noureddin, (who had just come into possession of his father's immense estates,) "let them bring the pen, ink and paper, the place is yours; I beg to hear no words on the occasion, I give it you with all my heart." Others had no sooner commended one of his houses, baths, or public buildings, erected for the accommodation of strangers, a property very valuable, from the considerable revenue it brought in, than they were instantly given away. The year had hardly gone by, when he heard one day a rapping at the door of his hall, while he was at table, having shut himself up with his friends, that they might pursue their pleasures free from interruption.

"One of his companions offered to rise, but Noureddin advanced before him, and went to the door himself; when finding his steward, he withdrew a little way out of the hall to hear what he wanted, leaving the door partly open. The friend who had risen having perceived the steward and curious to hear what he might have to say to Noureddin, placed himself between the hanging and the door, when he heard him thus address his master: "Sir," said he, "I beg a thousand pardons for interrupting you in the midst of your pleasures; but what I have to communicate is, as it appears to me, of so great importance, that I could not consistently with my duty avoid taking this liberty. I have just been making up my accounts, and I find that what I have

often warned you off, is now arrived; that not the smallest coin remains of all the sums I have received from you to defray your expenses. Whatever other funds you have assigned me, are also exhausted; and your farmers, and various tenants have made it appear to me so very evident that you have made over to others the estates they have rented of you, that I can demand nothing from them. Here are my accounts, Sir, examine them; if you wish that I should continue to serve you, assign me other funds; or otherwise permit me to retire." Noureddin was so astonished at this discourse that he could not answer a word.

"The friend, who had been listening, having heard all that passed, returned immediately, and communicated it to the rest of the party. 'You will please yourselves,' said he, 'in profiting or not by this information; with regard to myself, I declare to you that this is the last time you will ever see me in Noureddin's house.' "Nay," replied they, "if it be as you have represented, we have no more business here than yourself; he will scarcely see us again." Noureddin returned at this moment; and though he endeavoured to put a good face upon the matter, and to inspire his friends with their accustomed hilarity, he could not dissemble, but that they readily discovered the truth of what they had just heard. He was indeed hardly returned, when one of the company rose from his seat: "Sir," said he, "I am very sorry that I cannot partake of the pleasure of your society any longer," and here excusing himself he departed. Immediately the whole party, one after another, did the same. Noureddin entertained not the least suspicion of the resolution taken by his friends, *not to see him again*. He resolved to visit them, not doubting they would raise a large sum for him, with which he resolved to repair his fortune by merchandise. He knocked at the first door he came to, where one of the richest of them lived. A female slave attended, who before she opened the door, inquired who was there? "Tell your master it is Noureddin." The slave having let him in, and introduced him into a hall, went to the chamber where her master was, to inform him that Noureddin was come to wait upon him. "Noureddin," said he in a tone of contempt, and so loud that Noureddin heard him. "Go tell him I am not at home, and whenever he shall call, give him the same answer."

"The slave returned and informed Noureddin, that she had believed her master to be within, but that she had been mistaken. Noureddin went away confused and astonished. "Ah," cried he, "perfidious, pitiful wretch, It was only yesterday that he protested to me I had no *sincere friend*, and now he treats me thus unworthily." He proceeded to the door of another, who ordered the same reply to be given. He then waited on a third, and in succession on all the rest, and received every where the same answer, though at the same time they were *every one at home*.

Now it was that the mind of Noureddin became wholly engrossed with the most serious reflections, and that he discovered his irreparable fault in having relied so fondly on these *false friends*, from their assiduity to surround his person. He now saw the vanity of those protestations of regard, which had been uttered amidst the enjoyment of splendid entertainments, and while they were daily experiencing the effects of his unbounded generosity.—"It is too true" said he to himself, "that a man happy as I have been, resembles a tree full of fruit; as long as any fruit remains on the tree, it is sur-

rounded by those who come to partake of its produce, but when there is nothing more to be had, it is regarded no longer, but remains stripped and abandoned."

Ye generous minded few, who feeling not the pressure of the present moment, give way to the dictates of a noble nature; behold in this tree the emblem of yourselves! When stripped of its fruits, as it will assuredly be, by the locusts which surround you under the mask of loving friends, the then worthless trunk will be left to the mercy of the elements "unpitied and forgot!"

#### OFFICIAL DOCUMENT—THE ARMY.

*Letter from the Secretary of War, to the Chairman of the Military Committee, upon the subject of an additional Military Academy, and a School of Practice.*

DEPARTMENT OF WAR,

15th January, 1819.

SIR: In reply to that part of your letter, of the 20th of November, which requests my opinion on the expediency of establishing one or more additional military academies, and their places of location, and such other information and facts as I may deem proper to communicate on these subjects, with the probable annual expenses of these establishments I have the honor to make the following statement:

The number of cadets now authorized by law is two hundred and fifty, who are divided into four classes; the cadets of one of which, every year terminate their studies, and are promoted into the army. As the academy is now nearly full, it is probable that the number which will annually terminate their studies, and, consequently, will be candidates for promotion, will not be much short of fifty. The number of vacancies in the army which have occurred, from the 1st of August 1816, to the 1st of May, 1818, has been one hundred and forty eight, or about eighty four per annum; but, as it is probable that the causes which have operated to produce so many vacancies in this time have been accidental & consequent on the change from active service to the inactivities of a peace establishment, there will not, it is believed, in future, be so many; and that the cadets who will annually terminate their studies at West Point, will be equal, or nearly so, to the annual average vacancies. In this view of the subject, an additional military academy would not now be required.—But it seems to me, that the question ought not to be determined, by a reference simply to the wants of our military peace establishment, which, from our geographical position, and the policy of our government, will always bear a small proportion to the population of the country, and to our military es-

tablishment in time of war. So far from graduating the number or extent of our military academies, by the want of the army in time of peace, the opposite principle would probably, be more correct; that, in proportion as our regular military establishment is small, the government ought to be careful to discriminate, by education a knowledge of the art of war. The army itself is a practical school of this art, which, except in the higher branches, may, where it bears a large proportion to the population of the country, supersede other modes of perpetuating or disseminating this indispensable art. But, in a country situated as ours is, with a small standing army, and far removed from any power from which we have much to fear, the important knowledge of the art of defending our shores, will, in a long peace, without the particular patronage of the government, be nearly lost. The establishment of military academies is the cheapest and safest mode of producing and perpetuating this knowledge. The government ought to furnish the means to those who are unwilling to bestow their time to acquire it. The cadets who cannot be provided for in the army, will return to private life, but, in the event of war, their knowledge will not be lost to the country.—The government may then avail itself of their military science, & though they may not be acquainted with all the details of duty in an army, they will acquire it in a much shorter time than those who have not had the advantage of a military education. No truth is better supported by history, than that, other circumstances being nearly equal victory will be on the side of those who have the best instructed officers. The duties of a soldier are few and simple, and, with well instructed officers, they can be acquired in a short time; as our own experience, and that of other countries, have satisfactorily proved. To form competent officers, in the present improved state of the art of war, is much more difficult; as an officer, besides a knowledge of the duties belonging to the soldier, has others of a more difficult nature to acquire, and which can only be acquired by long experience, or by a regular military education.

With these views, I would recommend one additional military academy. It ought to be placed where it would mutually accommodate the southern and western portions of our country, which are the most remote from the present institution.

Besides an additional academy, I would submit for the consideration of the committee the propriety of establishing a school of practice, to be fixed near the seat of governmen-

ment. On this important subject, I respectfully annex as a part of this communication, a report from gen. Bernard, and col. M'Ree, to this Department; in which the subject is so fully discussed, as to supersede the necessity of any further observations.

The expenses of erecting the necessary buildings for an additional military academy on a scale as extensive as that at West Point would cost about one hundred and thirty thousand dollars, of which sum, however but a small part would be required for this year. The current expense of the institution would (excluding the pay of the cadets, which is sixteen dollars per month, and two rations per day,) probably amount to about twenty two thousand dollars per annum.

For the school of practice, there would be but little expense, except the erection of the necessary buildings for the accomodation of the institution. The pay of the superintendent and professors, should they be even taken from the citizens, would not exceed eight thousand five hundred dollars, which would constitute nearly the whole of the current expense, as the lieutenants of artillery and engineers, while at the institution, will not receive any additional pay or emoluments.—The expense of the buildings may be estimated at eighty thousand dollars, of which, however, but a small part would be required for the present year.

I have the honor to be, your most obedient servant,

J. C. CALHOUN.

Hon R. M. JOHNSON, Chairman of the Committee on Military Affairs, House of Representatives.

*Considerations on the course of instruction necessary for the officers of the different arms of an Army.*

Circumstances of locality; the nature of the operations of war, and the variety of the means employed for the purposes of destruction and preservation, have naturally led to the subdivision of an army into several parts; which differ in their manner of combatting, but which are also intended to render reciprocal aid to each other, to co-operate most efficaciously to the same end, and to constitute, when in action, but one combined whole.

This subdivision existed among the ancients, as it does among the moderns; and with both, (the absolute and relative numerical force of these subdivisions being supposed nearly equal) the systems of war have been uniformly more perfect, and productive of greater results, in proportion as the several parts were better calculated to act with promptitude, precision, and in concert. These parts are designated in modern armies by the word arm; and consist of infantry, cavalry, and artillery and engineers.—Each of these arms acts occasionally as principal or accessory. In a battle the infantry is general the principal arm, while the three others are more or less accessories; in the pursuit of a retreating army, the cavalry becomes the principal; and in a siege, the artillery and engineers auxiliaries.

Among the means which modern discipline employs, to give the greatest effect to the combined action of these arms, is instruction. And here, the same motives which have resorted to a subdivision of labor, as a powerful cause of perfection in objects of general industry, have also led to a subdivision of military instruction, as most productive of that concert and efficiency desirable in the operation of an army. This instruction, and the objects and advantages of its subdivision, are the subjects of present consideration.

To obtain, by the aid of military instruction, greater effect in the particular or combined employment of the different arms, two modes immediately present themselves: *First*, That each arm should be composed of individuals versed exclusively in the theory and practice of that arm; *Second*, That the individual composing each arm, should be instructed equally in the theory and practice of all the other arms. The first of these methods is insufficient; because, in giving to each individual merely the knowledge necessary to the duties of his own arm, it leaves him deficient, of what is necessary to connect the operations of the rest, as parts of one general system. The second is impracticable; because, it is the privilege of but few individuals to possess that facility of intellect which is requisite to embrace four branches of knowledge, as extensive as are those in question, and to practise them all, with that correctness and promptitude, which is the peculiar advantage of such as devote themselves principally to but one of these branches. In order to avoid both of these inconveniences, the theoretical and practical knowledge in the conduct of an army has been divided into two distinct classes; the one embracing whatever is common to all the arms; the other confined to what particularly appertains to each arm. A consequent and similar division has followed in the instruction; the first branch to include what is necessary and useful to the service of every arm; the second to include the theory and practice of each arm in particular.—Hence, the necessity of an elementary, or common school, where the knowledge common to every arm should be given a like to all who are intended for the army; and a school of a higher order, for the purpose of increasing (when necessary) the elementary knowledge which has previously been acquired to the extent demanded, and teaching its application to the particular objects and duties of each arm, which constitute a school of application: In those countries which have large military establishments, there is a school of application for each arm. But those nations who, in time of peace, keep but a feeble military force on foot, find it advantageous to unite, as far as possible, these different schools of application in one; where such as are admitted for the service of those arms which demand a more advanced theoretical, or more varied practical knowledge, receive their last degree of academical instruction. In this last case, the students at the school of application receive likewise two kinds of instruction: *1st*. That which is common to the several arms to which they are destined; and *2d*, that which is exclusively necessary to the arm in which they are respectively to serve.

Among all nations possessing military academies, the schools of application for such as are destined for the infantry and cavalry, are the regiments of the army in which they are to serve. It is on joining and doing duty with their respective regiments that they learn to apply the instruction received.

at the elementary school, and acquire whatsoever relates to the discipline, the conduct, administration and legislation of troops.

This cannot be the case however with those destined for the artillery and engineers, or the topographical corps. They are all more or less liable to be employed separately, and immediately after leaving the school; and are deprived of the advantages peculiar to the officer of infantry and cavalry, of making their first essays in their professional duties, under the eyes of their chiefs; and being unassisted by the advice of their superiors in rank and experience, they are left without the means of obtaining instruction, and frequently exposed to compromit the service by errors, which often lead to irreparable misfortunes exceeding an hundred fold the expense of giving a proper education to the person who has not been qualified to exercise his profession with satisfaction to himself, or utility to his country.

These considerations alone appear to us sufficient to show the advantage, if not necessity, of dividing the course of military instruction between two schools; the one elementary, and the other a school of application.

The elementary school at West Point has hitherto been very inferior as such; and altogether inadequate to the objects for which it was established. A project has been presented, however, calculated to place this school upon the footing of the most perfect of the kind which exist. As to the school of application, there is none. The degree of instruction given to the cadets of the school of West Point, has heretofore been for the most part limited to a general acquaintance with those branches of knowledge, which are common to all the arms of an army; and which ought to have been extended, and applied to artillery, fortification, and topography. The consequence has been, that the officers of infantry, artillery, engineers, and of the topographical corps, have had the same degree and kind of instruction; and the only real difference which existed between them on leaving the school, consisted in the uniform of their respective corps or regiments. If any have been so fortunate as to render themselves serviceable, either in the artillery or engineers, the cause must be sought for, in their own industry, and not in the education received by them at West Point, which was barely sufficient to excite a desire for military inquiries and of military pursuits.

It remains to enumerate the branches of knowledge which are common to all the arms; and those which are necessary, and appertain, more or less, exclusively, to each or several of these arms. The subjoined table exhibits the two principal divisions of the instruction. The first part includes the branches of knowledge that are necessary to all who are destined for any arm of the military establishment; either as officers in the exercise of their immediate professional duties, or as men of information, liable, in the course of their military career, to be intrusted with other interests. It is, therefore, that the mathematics, for instance, are extended farther than is strictly necessary to the officer of infantry; that natural and experimental philosophy, and chemistry, are inserted under the elementary division, rather as forming part of a liberal education than of mere military utility; and, finally, the several kinds of drawings are only taught in the elementary division, as an advantageous introduction to the prompt acquisition, and exercise, of the

art of topographical delineations. This division, or elementary part of the instruction, will require five professors, three teachers, and two instructors. The number of assistants, &c. depends upon the number of individuals at the school.

The same table presents the second part of the instruction, which is in addition to the first, and is necessary to those destined to the engineers, artillery, or topographical corps. Here the mathematics carried to a higher degree, which is rendered necessary by their application to machines, the theory, of artillery, the construction of charts, &c. Descriptive geometry is applied to machines and fortification. Fortification is taught to the extent which is exclusively necessary to the officer of engineers and artillery to the extent that is only required for the officers at that arm. Geometry and trigonometry receive their applications to topographical operations; and spherical trigonometry and descriptive geometry, to the projection, &c. of charts. This part of the instruction will demand four professors. Because, either these two divisions of the instruction will be taught at one school, or two separate schools. In the first case, the professors of the elementary course will be insufficient, and cannot attend to a course of instruction thus extended: in the second case, the four professors before mentioned become absolutely necessary. But whether the entire course (or both of these divisions of the instruction) shall be taught at the same, or at two separate schools, it will not be the less indispensable that a division of it, similar to that here established, should exist in fact. The question is, therefore, reduced to this; shall the elementary, or first part of the course of the instruction, be taught at West Point, and the second part constitute an additional class or classes, at the school of West Point, to consist of those cadets only, who are destined for the engineers, artillery, and topographical corps, and who shall have previously passed through the elementary classes?

The second division of the course of instruction exhibited by the annexed table, and which must constitute, either a school, or classes of application, is practical as well as theoretical. The application of the elementary branches of instruction, and the branches of mathematics, to the theory of artillery, fortification, and topography, forms the theoretical or academic part of the division of the course of instruction, while the application of these theories to the circumstances of the ground, &c. requires, and must be taught to the students, by a course of actual experiment and practical exemplifications in the field. It is necessary to make this remark, in order, to a just appreciation of all the considerations which should influence in the decision of the present question.

The advantages which may be derived from a union of the the school of application, in the shape of additional classes, to the elementary school, are almost exclusively those of economy, and admit of being correctly ascertained; they consist,

1st. In having certain duties, that are common and necessary to both establishments, performed by the same individuals who are now employed for those purposes at West Point. Such are the duties of the superintendent, most of the officers of the military staff, and disbursing department.

2d. In the purchase of an additional site, which will be avoided.

3d. In saving the additional expense of quarters, academical, and any other buildings, to the extent

that they now exist at West Point, beyond the wants of that establishment.

4th. In saving the expense of purchasing a library, instruments, &c., to the extent of those now on hand at West Point.

5th. In saving the travelling and other expenses to which the graduates of the elementary school would be subjected, in order to join and commence their course at the school of application, if these institutions were separate; and,

6th. In avoiding a loss of time on the part of the graduates, which would take place on their transfer to the school of application in the case just supposed.

The following are the considerations which oppose a union, and which consequently urge a separation of these two schools.

1st. The classes of application will consist of those individuals destined for the artillery, engineers, and topographical corps, who shall have graduated at the termination of the elementary course of instruction, and who will consequently be then promoted, by brevet or otherwise, in the same manner as those destined for the infantry. There must probably be two classes of application; and the number of students of which they ought to consist, in order to supply the annual vacancies in their respective arms, will not be less than seventy. The school will, therefore, be augmented to this amount, and will be composed of commissioned officers and cadets, whose rights, interests, and occupations, will be more or less dissimilar; and who must, consequently, be governed by regulations, &c. essential different, which will at once destroy that unity of system necessary to all military institutions.

2d. The difference in point of rank, in the students of the elementary classes, and those composing the classes of application, will originate claims to precedence and superiority on the one part, and resistance to such pretensions on the other, which no regulations can restrain within proper limits.

3d. It will be necessary to have two sets of professors at the same school, and in several instances two professors of the same department of science, who will be independent of each other. Hence, increased occasions of discord. Individual interest and feelings must of necessity, and frequently, will be brought into collision; which experience has sufficiently proved, would lead, first to divisions among the officers and cadets destructive of that harmony and order which should prevail, and are believed essential to the successful operations of the school.

4th. The duties of the two sets of professors, the studies and occupations of the officers and cadets, being different in their character, and requiring to be arranged differently, as to time and other circumstances, will render two distinct systems of organization and police indispensable, which frequently cannot be made to accord, without incurring some inconvenience or injury, or without the sacrifice of some advantage on the part of one or the other division of the school, and perhaps of both. The superintendent will, in fact, have two schools to govern and conduct; his time and attention will, therefore, be divided, alternately occupied with the peculiar concerns of each, and frequently employed in reconciling conflicting interests. The whole system of administration for the two schools will be more or less controlled or influenced by the inconvenient and unnecessary relations in which they are placed to each other.

The advantages and disadvantages here enumerated, as attending the union of the two divisions of the course of military instruction, at the same school, are obviously too different in their kind to admit of being compared; nor is it necessary that they should be. The expence attending the separate establishment of a school of application might be offered as a reason for rejecting it altogether, but by no means for uniting it to the elementary school, when the operations of both would be obstructed in consequence of so doing, and their ultimate success rendered more than doubtful.

Among the advantages that will be derived from the establishment of a school of application, are the means it will afford of providing for other departments of national service, besides those which have been mentioned; and, by locating it immediately under the eyes of the government, the measures necessary to enlarge, or to adapt it to the particular objects in view, will be more readily ascertained, and applied with greater certainty of effect.—The necessity of this institution will become urgent, in the event of one or more additional elementary schools being created. It will then be expedient for those very reasons of economy which now form the only objections that can be opposed to it; and it will be necessary, because it will enable the respective candidates for the engineer, artillery, and topographical corps to be assembled at the same school, and to receive, in common, their last degree of instruction; and because that, by no other means can that uniformity in the instruction and duties of each of these arms be attained, which is essential to their perfection.

We are, therefore, of opinion, that a school of application is decidedly necessary to the military service of the country: that, to be rendered efficient, it ought to be separate from all immediate connexion with any other institution; and that it should have a central location, and as little removed as possible from under the observation of government.

Which is respectfully submitted to the honorable J. C. Calhoun, Secretary of War.

BERNARD, Brigadier General.  
WM. M'REE, Major of Engineers.

#### *Table of a course of Instruction for officers of the various Arms of an Army.*

Division of Instruction common to Infantry, Artillery,  
Engineers, and Topographical Corps.

##### *Mathematics.—1 Professor.*

Arithmetic, including Logarithms,

Geometry,

Algebra,

Plane Trigonometry,

Mechanical powers.

##### *Natural and Experimental Philosophy.—1 Professor. Of Bodies,*

Law of Motion and Forces, Gravity and Attraction, &c.

Theory of Electric, Galvanic and Magnetic Fluids,

Geology,

Elements of Astronomy.

##### *Chemistry.—1 Professor.*

Animals, Vegetables, and Mineralogy.

##### *Descriptive Geometry and Fortification.—1 Professor.*

Elements of Descriptive Geometry,

Castrametation and Field Fortification,

Attack and Defence of Field Fortifications and

Retrenched Posts, &c.

##### *Military Reconnoitering.*

*Artillery.—1 Instructor.*

**Elements of Artillery,**  
**Garrison and Field Services of Artillery, &c.**

*Infantry.—1 Instructor.†*

**Drill of the Soldier, School of the Platoon, Battalion, Evolutions of the Line, &c.**

**Elements of Grand Tactics and Strategy.**

*Drawing.—1 Master*

**Human Figure, Landscape, and Topographical Delineations.**

**French language, 1 Master.**

**Riding and sword exercise, 1 Master.**

**Division of Instruction necessary to the Artillery, Engineers, and Topographical Corps.**

*Mathematics.—1 Professor.*

**Conic Sections**

**Spherical Trigonometry,**

**Fluxions,**

**Mechanics.**

**Application of fluxions and mechanics to machines.**

**Descriptive Geometry and Fortification.—1 Professor.**

**Application of Descriptive Geometry to Machines and to Fortifications.**

**Fortification (permanent) of Places, Sea-coasts, and Retrenched Camps,**

**Attack and Defence of Fortresses, &c.**

**Mines,**

**Construction of Works, of Fortifications and Military Edifices.**

*Artillery.—1 Professor.*

**Construction of Small Arms, Cannon, Mortars, Howitzers, &c.**

**Gun Carriages, Caissons, &c.**

**Service in Sieges, in the Field, &c.**

**Preparation of Munition of War, Fire-works, &c.**

*Topography.—1 Professor.*

**Application of Descriptive Geometry, &c. to the projection of Geographical Charts,**

**Geodesy,**

**Topographical Surveys and representations of ground,**

**Knowledge and practice of Instruments employed in the operations of Topography, Geography, and Geodesy.**

**NOTE.—**This presents only the heads of instruction. An analysis of each would enlarge the Table to a volume.

\* These courses are highly useful, and indeed indispensable, for forming engineers and officers of artillery. But they do not seem to me to enter into the necessary education of an officer of infantry, otherwise than as forming part of the general information, of which it is proper that no gentleman should be entirely ignorant. If it would not be presumptuous in me to offer an improvement on the proposed plans of so excellent a judge as Gen. Bernard, I would suggest that another course, requiring another instructor; for teaching military administration and legislation, an abstract of the American Constitution, of our militia laws, would be useful to all the young officers in the school, and more particularly so to the officers of infantry than chemistry and natural philosophy.

† In addition to these lessons, I think the same instructor, who should be some experienced officer, might give some lessons of the service of the infantry in garrison and in the field, of daily discipline, and more particularly of the service of the light infantry and riflemen, adapted to Indian warfare, &c.

**THE YELLOW FEVER.**

The re-publication of the following essay on the Yellow Fever, I believe, may be useful to the community at this time. Though not composed by one of the faculty it contains as much valuable information on this interesting topic, as was ever communicated on any subject in the same number of lines. I believe it would also be well if your readers were to preserve it, as it is now but seldom met with in print.

J. T.

*September 15th.*

*Of the Cause of the Yellow Fever; and the means of Preventing it in places not yet infected with it; addressed to the Board of Health in America.*

By THOMAS PAINE.

A great deal has been written respecting the yellow fever. First, with respect to its causes, whether domestic or imported. Secondly, on the mode of treating it.

What I am going to suggest in this essay is, to ascertain some point to begin at, in order to arrive at the cause, and, for this purpose, some preliminary observations are necessary.

The yellow fever always begins in the lowest part of a populous mercantile town, near the water, and continues there, without affecting the higher parts. The sphere, or circuit, it acts in, is small, and it rages most where large quantities of new ground have been made, by banking out the river, for the purpose of making wharves. The appearance and prevalence of the yellow fever in these places, being those where vessels arrive from the West Indies, has caused the belief, that the yellow fever was imported from thence. But here are two causes acting in the same place, the one, condition of the ground at the wharves, which, being new made on the muddy and filthy bottom of the river, is different from the natural condition of the ground in the higher parts of the city, and consequently subject to produce a different kind of effluvia or vapour; the other case is the arrival of vessels from the West Indies.

In the state of Jersey, neither of these cases has taken place; no shipping arrive there, and consequently there has been no embankment for the purpose of wharves, and the yellow fever has never broke out in Jersey. This, however, does not decide the point, as to the immediate cause of the fever; but it shews that this species of fever is not common to the country in its natural state; and I believe the same was the case in the West Indies, before embankments began, for the purpose of making wharves, which always alter the natural condition of the ground. No old history that I know of, mentions such a disorder as the yellow fever.

A person seized with the yellow fever in an affected part of the town, and brought into the healthy part, or into the country and among healthy persons, does not communicate it to the neighbourhood, or to those immediately around him. Why, then, are we to suppose it can be brought from the West Indies, a distance of more than a thousand miles, since we see it cannot be carried from one town to another, nor from one part of a town to another, at home? Is it in the air? This question on the case requires a minute examination. In the first place, the difference between air and wind is the same as between a stream of water, and a standing water. A stream of water is water in motion, and wind is air in motion. In a gentle breeze, the whole body of air, as far as the breeze extends, moves at the rate of seven or eight miles an hour; in a high wind,

at the rate of seventy, eighty, or a hundred miles an hour. When we see the shadow of a cloud gliding on the surface of the ground, we see the rate at which the air moves, and it must be a good trotting horse that can keep pace with the shadow, even in a gentle breeze; consequently, a body of air that is in and over any place of the same extent as the affected of a city may be, will, in the space of an hour, even at the moderate rate I speak of, be moved seven or eight miles to leeward, and its place, in and over the city, will be supplied by a new body of air coming from a healthy part, seven or eight miles distant the contrary way, and then on in continual succession. The disorder, therefore, is not in the air considered in its natural state, and never stationary.—This leads to another consideration of the case.

An impure effluvia, arising from some cause in the ground, in the manner that fermenting liquors produce an effluvia near its surface that is fatal to life, will become mixed with the air contiguous to it, and as fast as that body of air moves off, it will impregnate every succeeding body of air, however pure it may be when it arrives at the place.

The result from this state of the case is, that the impure air, or vapour, that generates the yellow fever issues from the earth, that is, from the new made earth, or ground raised on the muddy and filthy bottom of the river, and which impregnates every fresh body of air that comes over the place, in like manner as air becomes heated when it approaches or passes over the fire, or becomes offensive in a smell when it approaches or passes over a body of corrupt vegetable or animal matter in a state of putrefaction.

The muddy bottom of rivers contains great quantities of impure, and often inflammable air (carburetted hydrogen gas,) injurious to life; and which remains entangled in the mud till let loose from thence by some accident. The air is produced by the dissolution and decomposition of any combustible matter falling into the water, and sinking into the mud, of which the following circumstance will serve to give some explanation.

In the fall of the year that New York was evacuated (1783,) Gen. Washington had his head-quarters at Mrs. Berrian's, at Rocky-Hill, in Jersey, and I was there. The congress then sat at Princeton. We had several times been told, that the river or creek that runs near the bottom of Rocky-Hill, and over which there is a mill, might be set on fire, for that was the term the country people used, and as Gen. Washington had a mind to try the experiment, Gen. Lincoln, who was also there, undertook to make preparation for it against the next evening, November 5th. This was to be done, as we were told, by disturbing the mud at the bottom of the river, and holding something in a blaze, as paper or straw, a little above the surface of the water.

Colonel Humphries and Cob were at that time side-camps of Gen. Washington, and those two gentlemen and myself got into an argument respecting the cause. Their opinion was, that, on disturbing the bottom of the river, some bituminous matter arose to the surface, which took fire when the light was put to it. I, on the contrary, supposed, that a quantity of inflammable air was let loose, which ascended through the water, and took fire above the surface. Each party held to his opinion, and the next evening the experiment was to be made.

A scow had been stationed in the mill-dam, and Gen. Washington, Gen. Lincoln, and myself, and I

believe Colonel Cob (for Col. Humphries was sick,) and three or four soldiers with poles, were put on board the scow. Gen. Washington placed himself at one end of the scow, and I at the other. Each of us had a roll of cartridge paper, which we lighted and held over the water, about two or three inches from the surface, when the soldiers began disturbing the bottom of the river with the poles.

As Gen. Washington sat at one end of the scow, and I at the other, I could see better any thing that might happen from his light, than I could from my own, over which I was nearly perpendicular. When the mud at the bottom was disturbed by the poles, the air-bubbles rose fast, and I saw the fire take from Gen. Washington's light, and descend from thence to the surface of the water, in a similar manner as when a lighted candle is held so as to touch the smoke of a candle just blown out, the smoke will take fire, and the fire will descend and light up the candle. This was demonstrative evidence, that what was called setting the river on fire, was setting the inflammable air on fire that arose out of the mud!

I mentioned this experiment to Mr. Rittenhouse, of Philadelphia, the next time I went to that city, and our opinion on the case was, that the air or vapour that issued from any combustible matter (vegetable or otherwise) that underwent a dissolution and decomposition of its parts, either by fire or water in a confined place, so as not to blaze, would be inflammable, and would become flame whenever it came in contact with flame.

In order to determine if this was the case, we filled up the breach of a gun barrel about five or six inches with saw-dust, and the upper part with dry sand to the top, and, after spiking up the touch-hole, put the breach into a smith's furnace, and kept it red hot, so as to consume the saw dust; the sand, of consequence, would prevent any blaze.—We applied a lighted candle to the mouth of the barrel; as the first vapour that flew off would be humid, it extinguished the candle; but, after applying the candle three or four times, the vapour that issued out began to flash. We then tied a bladder over the mouth of the barrel, which the vapour soon filled, and then tying a string round the neck of the bladder, above the muzzle, took the bladder off.

As we could not conveniently make experiments upon the vapour while it was in the bladder, the next operation was, to get it into a phial: for this purpose, we took a phial of about three or four ounces, filled it with water, and put a cork slightly into it, and introducing it into the neck of the bladder, worked the cork out, by getting hold of it through the bladder, into which the water then emptied itself, and the air in the bladder ascended into the phial; we then put the cork into the phial, and took it from the bladder. It was now in a convenient condition for experiment.

We put a lighted match into the phial, and the air or vapour in it blazed up in the manner of a chimney on fire. We extinguished it two or three times, by stopping the mouth of the phial; and putting the lighted match to it again, it repeatedly took fire, till the vapour was spent, and the phial became filled with atmospheric air.

These two experiments, that, in which some combustible substance (branches and leaves of trees,) had been decomposed by water, in the mud; and this, where the decomposition had been produced by fire, without blazing, show, that a species of air

injurious to life, when taken into the lungs, may be generated from substances which in themselves are harmless.

It is by means similar to these, that charcoal, which is made by fire without blazing, emits a vapour destructive to life. I now come to apply these cases, and the reasoning deduced therefrom, to account for the cause of the yellow fever.\*

1st. The yellow fever is not a disorder produced by the climate naturally, or it would always have been here in the hot months. The climate is the same now as it was fifty or a hundred years ago. There was no yellow fever then, and it is only within the last twelve years, that such a disorder has been known to America.

2dly, The low grounds on the shores of the rivers at the cities, where the yellow fever is annually generated, and continues about three months without spreading, were not subject to that disorder in their natural state, or the Indians would have forsaken them; whereas, they were the parts most frequented by the Indians in all seasons of the year, on account of fishing. The result from these cases is, that the yellow fever is produced by some new circumstance not common to the country in its natural state, and the question is, what is that new circumstance?

It may be said, that every thing done by the white people, since their settlement in the country, such as building towns, clearing lands, levelling hills, and filling up valleys, is a new circumstance: but the yellow fever does not accompany any of these new circumstances. No alteration made on the dry land produces the yellow fever: we must, therefore, look to some other new circumstances; and we come now to those that have taken place between wet and dry, between land and water.

The shores of the rivers at New York, and also at Philadelphia, have, on account of the vast increase of commerce, and for the sake of making wharves, undergone great and rapid alterations from their natural state, within a few years; and it is only in such parts of the shores, where those alterations have taken place, that the yellow fever has been produced. The parts where little or no alteration has been, either on the East or North river, and which continue in their natural state, or nearly so, do not produce the yellow fever. The fact, therefore, points to the cause.

Besides several new streets gained from the river by embankment, there are upwards of eighty new wharves made since the war, and the much greater part within the last ten or twelve years: the consequence of which has been, that great quantities of filth, or combustible matter, deposited in the muddy bottom of the river contiguous to the shore, and which produced no ill effect while exposed to the air, and washed twice every twenty-four hours by the tide water, have been covered over several feet deep with new earth, and pent up, and the tide excluded. It is in these places, and in these places only, that the yellow fever is produced.

Having thus shown, from the circumstances of the case, that the cause of the yellow fever is in the place where it makes its appearance, or rather in the pernicious vapour issuing therefrom, I go to

\* The author does not mean to infer, that the inflammable air, or carburetted hydrogen gas, is the cause of the yellow fever; but that perhaps it enters into some combination with miasm generated in low grounds, which produces the disease.

show a method of constructing wharves, where wharves are yet to be constructed, as on the shore of the East River, at Corridor's Hook, and also on the North River, that will not occasion the yellow fever, and which may also point out a method of removing it from places already infected with it. Instead, then, of embanking out the river, and raising solid wharves of earth on the mud bottom of the shore, the better method would be to construct wharves on arches, built of stone. The tide will then flow in under the arch, by which means the shore and the muddy bottom will be washed and kept clean, as if they were in their natural state, without wharves.

When wharves are constructed on the shore lengthways, that is, without cutting the shore up into slips, arches can easily be turned, because arches joining each other lengthways, serve as buttments to each other; but when the shore is cut up into slips, there can be no buttments. In this case, wharves can be formed on stone pillars, or wooden piles planked over on the top. In either of these cases, the space underneath will be a commodious shelter or harbour for small boats, which can go in and come out always, except at low water, and be secure from storms and injuries. This method, besides preventing the cause of the yellow fever, which I think it will, will render the wharves more productive than the present method, because of the space preserved within the wharf.

I offer no calculation of the expence of constructing wharves on arches or piles; but on a general view, I believe they will not be so expensive as the present method. A very great part of the expence of making solid wharves of earth is occasioned by the carriage of materials, which will be greatly reduced by the methods here proposed, and still more so, were the arches to be constructed of cast iron blocks. I suppose that one ton of cast iron blocks would go as far in the construction of an arch as twenty tons of stone.

If, by constructing wharves in such manner that the tide water can wash the shore and bottom of the river contiguous to the shore, as they are washed in their natural condition, the yellow fever can be prevented from generating in places where wharves are yet to be constructed, it may point out a method of removing it, at least by degrees, from places already infected with it, which will be, by opening the wharves in two or three places in each, and letting the tide water pass through. The parts opened can be planked over, so as not to prevent the use of the wharf.

In taking up and treating this subject, I have considered it as belonging to natural philosophy, rather than medicinal art; and therefore I say nothing about the treatment of the disease after it takes place. I leave that part to those whose profession it is to study it.

Letters from Texas, dated July 17, received at Alexandria, Louisiana, say that the success of the revolution in Texas, has so far met the most sanguine expectations of its partisans; and that recruits arrive daily, whilst all the inhabitants of the province are for the independents to a man.

From the Hopkinsville, (Ky.) paper, we learn that Gen. Long, who commands the Patriot army, is a native of South Carolina, and early emigrated to the Mississippi; he has generally been considered an enterprising man, and a brave soldier; attached to the equal rights of man.

## EDITOR'S CABINET.

*City of Washington, Sept. 18.*

## SPAIN AND THE FLORIDA TREATY

A very general disposition prevails in the public mind to consider the rejection by Spain of the Treaty recently concluded by the U. States with her minister as necessarily a cause of war. This disposition has its source, not in a calm consideration of the state of affairs between the two countries, but in the good wishes which the mass of the American people entertain for the success of the Spanish Patriots, and in a profound contempt of the monarchy of Spain. It is commonly thought, and no doubt justly, that a war with the Spaniards would greatly promote the establishment of South American Independence, and that the military and naval means of Ferdinand VII. would be almost nothing in a contest with the United States.

But whatever may be our good wishes for the Patriots and our contempt of the Spanish monarchy, they are evidently foreign to the question of peace or war between Spain and this country. That ought to be decided on its own merits.

The usual method of negotiating treaties is for the minister of each party to produce what is called a *full power*, shewing that he is authorised to treat. In extraordinary cases, where duplicity is apprehended, a minister may be required, besides his full power, to produce his *Instructions*.

From Mr. Adams' long acquaintance with diplomacy, we will not permit ourselves to doubt that he exacted from Don Luis de Onis all that the law of nations, under the circumstances, would allow him to exact.

If, however, on a view of the treaty in question, the king of Spain conceives that his minister had misinterpreted his instructions, or had exceeded them, the law of nations justifies him in disavowing the minister and refusing to ratify the treaty.

The United States owe it to themselves to be just. They have exercised the right of rejecting a treaty on a very memorable occasion. The reader need not be particularly reminded of the course pursued by President Jefferson with regard to the treaty entered into in 1806 by Messrs. Monroe and Pinkney with the British government. What our own executive has done, with the sanction of nearly the whole country, we cannot consistently refuse to the sovereign of Spain. In the case of two other treaties, the United States have ratified them with modifications. Should Ferdinand be disposed to follow such examples, he might very aptly quote the Bri-

tish treaty of 1794, and that with Sweden of 1816.

From these observations, the soundness of which will not, we think, be contested by any intelligent man, it is very clear that even if king Ferdinand rejects the treaty which is supposed to be now before him, such rejection will be no valid cause of war. He will no doubt owe our government a fair explanation of the motives for his refusal to ratify, and that duty he will probably perform in the full style of Castilian pomposity.

But although the rejection of the treaty will not be cause of war, provided the proper explanations are given, the old grounds of complaint will exist against Spain, perhaps in an aggravated degree; for however much Don Luis de Onis may be disavowed and dishonored, and however plausible may be the reasons alleged for refusing to ratify the treaty, there will still be room for belief that the cabinet of Madrid has acted with insincerity, and that *procrastination*, and not a settlement of differences, has been throughout the whole transaction its leading object.

The causes of difference between the two nations, anterior to the formation of the treaty ceding Florida, are sufficient to justify hostile measures if the United States choose to look upon them in that light. At the same time, however, these causes are of a *pecuniary* nature, and are therefore matter of calculation. If they touched the *honor* of the nation, there could be no delay in appealing to the sword. An open and unconditional war on our part would undoubtedly cost a great deal more than the amount of the claims of our merchants on Spain. It would be the height of folly to expend forty or fifty millions of dollars to punish the Spaniards for not paying us five or ten millions. But it does not follow that we are to do nothing. The territory between the river Sabine and the rio del Norte belongs to the United States, if the treaty should be nullified, and our brave troops may immediately, and of right, occupy it. Spain will still be indebted to our fellow-citizens a large sum of money, and Florida may be seized, by military attachment, as security for eventual payment. In these positions we may pause; and if Spain chooses to consider them acts of war, let her do so. If she declares war we can meet the shock with confidence.

The reflections which we make are by no means founded upon any definitive opinion as to the fate of the treaty. We are rather inclined to think, and we certainly hope, that it may yet be ratified. The report,

ed treatment of the Marquis de Casa Yrujo and of Don Luis de Onis does not appear to us to be wholly, if it is at all, connected with the ratification of the treaty. It will, not have been the first time that Florida has been separated by treaty from the Spanish monarchy. It was transferred to Great Britain by Spain in 1763. Admitting then that the Marquis has been imprisoned and the Don arrested, as has been reported, and that they are both to be tried, the inference is not so clear that they are victims to the vengeance of their master for having negotiated the treaty ceding Florida. The condition of the internal affairs of Old Spain is sufficiently equivocal to justify a suggestion that these ministers of an arbitrary prince have been suspected of other more heinous offences. In support of this suggestion it may be remarked, that the disgrace of Messrs. Yrujo and Onis would, in all likelihood, have followed, or at least have accompanied, and not preceded, the rejection of the treaty. Besides, why try them? To disavow both, or either, of them, the monarch is not obliged to consult any thing but his royal will and pleasure. The full power under which the Don acted at Washington must have been signed by the king himself; so that there can have been no cheat practised on his Majesty in that respect. All that can be alledged is, that the minister has mistaken his instructions; and such a mistake would hardly lead to the expulsion of a Secretary of State and the disonor of an ambassador. Had a departure from instructions been the ostensible reason for rejecting the treaty, it seems to us that it would have been rejected on its first arrival at Madrid, in which case we should have heard of the circumstance from Mr. Forsythe by the Hornet. The silence of our cabinet as to the advices brought by that vessel; the consultation which is supposed to have been held upon them after the President's arrival from his late tour; and the immediate return of Capt. Reid direct to Cadiz; all tend to inspire a belief that the obstacle to the ratification of the treaty is of a different nature from that of misconduct on the part of either the Marquis de Casa Yrujo or Don Luis de Onis in relation to it. The grandee landjobbers about the Spanish Court, with the noted adventurer Richard Raynal Keene to stir them up, present to the mind a very obvious cause for the hesitation of the king.

The banishment of Yrujo, the arrest of Onis, (if that be a fact,) and the insurrection of the troops in the vicinity of Cadiz, all happening so near together, lead to a conjecture that Ferdinand may have made some disco-

very of a plot, in which the army and the ministers may have been implicated. This, however, is mere presumption; for we are too little informed of the particular state of affairs in Spain to venture a decisive opinion.

### TO *The People of the United States.*

Political partizans, in some sections of the country, speak of the *present times* as being very distressing, and, in a growling tone, call upon government to mend them. But is it reasonable to suppose that government, by legislative or executive acts, can cure all the passions of the human heart? Can it cure *Avarice*, from which arises speculation in the funds, and in real estates? or *Pride*, whence spring ostentation and luxury? If the times are bad, have the people themselves not been in fault? Have they not over-traded and over-lived?

The order of society is preserved by many influences; but principally by those of law, religion, and morality. Upon the two latter mainly depend the happiness and prosperity of the community. Yet, in defiance of these, Avarice and Pride have perverted the true standard of human excellence. Mere wealth has been almost universally substituted for virtue and wisdom; and the money of a man, more than the merit of his actions, gives him rank and consequence in the world. Nay, so far has the perversion gone, that individuals who have only the *appearance* of riches, claim the privilege of adding the vulgarized title of *esquire* to their names. The word *gentleman* no longer means a person of education, of enlightened mind, of polished and courteous manners, of well-regulated and honorable sensibility: It is a term used of course, and, generally speaking, signifies little more than a fellow who does not knock you down and pick your pocket. Even politics, which in this Republic at least ought to be pure, are made a trade of; and demagogues in state affairs, like brokers in money matters, cater, at a premium, to the appetite of a foul and god-mandizing ambition.

From such deep degradation, produced by unbounded pride and the unbridled pursuit of wealth, it is impossible for government to rescue the people. *They must rescue themselves.* Reformation must begin in families. Fashion must accommodate itself to what prudence, and not to what vanity, dictates; and the *beauty of actions*, as well as the beauty of dress, must be nicely regarded in social intercourse.

The fraudulent Banks are not the *cause*, but the *effect*, of pecuniary embarrassments

It is obvious that when men can command real, they will not resort to fictitious, money. Banks themselves are not an evil, only as they abuse the true principle of banking; and those who have constituted them without sufficient capital in specie, were, in effect, bankrupt, or worth nothing, when they resorted to such an expedient. A bank in *form* is very different from a bank in *fact*: but the one, for a time, serves for a mask, and will pass as well as the other. Roguery arrays itself readily in the livery of the former; puts on as gay a garb as honesty itself, and thereby deludes and cheats mankind.

There is one infallible criterion by which the solvency of all banks may be known. It is the redemption of their notes in specie, on demand. When they refuse to do this, they are clearly insolvent, and ought no longer to be trusted. A merchant is considered insolvent when he does not pay his notes, and his credit vanishes. Why should it be different with a bank? Is there any thing so magical in the institution, even of a *chartered* bank, as to induce the public to believe that it sees, in worthless promissory notes, an equivalent for intrinsically valuable gold and silver? Does a bank itself continue to lend money to, or trust, a man who refuses to pay his notes punctually? Why, then, should the banks ask for an indulgence which they refuse to grant? *A bank note is not money.* It is only the evidence of a debt: and when it cannot be converted into specie, it is more over the evidence of insolvency and fraud.

A strange outcry has been raised against the bank of the United States since it has been under the direction of Mr. Langdon Cheves. But wherein has that gentleman offended? He found the affairs of the bank in a disordered state; and, like a wise man, he seeks to restore them to order and efficiency. What has the bank done, under *his* presidency, that can justly subject it to reprobation? It has called in its credits; it has curtailed its expenditures; it has diminished the amount of its loans. Are not these measures dictated by prudence? The Bank of the U. States has not refused to redeem its notes in specie. It continues to pay specie, and thus hinders the circulation of spurious state bank notes. Were it not for the salutary influence of this institution, spurious bank paper would pour like a torrent upon the community. Noah's flood was nothing to what it would be. The rain of forty days and forty nights was designed for the purification of the world; but a deluge of depreciating bank notes would inevitably corrupt it.

If the Bank of the United States has not been enabled to furnish a general currency, what has been the cause? It may be safely answered, the insolvent State banks. Planted in every section of the Union, *the petty bank of the vicinage* has almost every where superseded the Bank of the United States, and endeavored to suppress its notes. How can a general currency exist, when it is liable to be checked by the particular currency of county towns and villages?

The government of the United States is not, in effect, a sovereign authority for the purpose of regulating the currency of the country, although the framers of the federal constitution may have thought it was, when they gave to Congress power "to coin money, regulate the value thereof, and of foreign coin." The State banks are so many minors, issuing a paper money which depreciates, and obstructing the circulation of a pure and valuable currency. To what conclusion, therefore, do we come? Why, to this; that the only remedy for the present base currency is, the giving *exclusive authority to Congress to control all institutions which issue promissory notes intended to pass as money.* As many State banks as you please; but all acting upon, and co-operating in support of, a uniform banking principle; in other words, all paying and receiving notes of one description, issuing from a central point, and redeemable in specie by each State and National bank in proportion to the amount of its capital.

Let it not be conceived, however, that any condition of the national currency will redeem individuals from the deplorable consequences of their own folly. Idleness, dissipation, and extravagance, have nothing to hope from the facility of borrowing money. Their cure must be sought for in a strict adherence to an improved code of morality: And for poverty without vice, the sure resource is, not speculation, but industry and frugality.

#### LITERARY CURIOSITY.

MR. EDITOR—I lately sent you an account of HUGH BOYD, Esq. I now send you a specimen of his writing. Mr. Boyd, you will recollect, was one of the *reputed* authors of JUNIUS' LETTERS. The communications I send you, must be considered by you as literary curiosities. JUNIUS published his first letter on the 21st January, 1769, and his last letter was published on the 21st January, 1772. And we are informed by the biographer of Mr. Boyd, that shortly after the discontinuance of those celebrated let-

ters, he went over to Ireland; and there entered into an electioneering warfare. On which occasion he wrote a series of essays under the signature of a FREEHOLDER, from which the following specimen of his stile of writing is taken. The letters of JUNIUS were highly polished; and the motto to his republished letters is, "Stat nominis umbra." Mr. BOYD was avowedly the author of the FREEHOLDER. The son of MR. SAMPSON WOODFALL, the Editor of "*The General Advertiser*," in which paper the original Letters of JUNIUS were published, has recently published a new edition of those essays. He has subjoined *fac similes* of the respective hand-writing of those who had been severally reputed to be the author of them. What he gives as *fac similes* of the hand-writing of JUNIUS' communication, and of the avowed hand writing of Mr. Boyd, do not, it is true, accord. The specimen of what Mr. Woodfall gives as the hand-writing in which the essays signed "JUNIUS" were communicated to his father, appears, *thereby*, to have been written in a fair and elegant hand; but the hand-writing of Mr. Boyd appears, by that specimen, not to have been so handsomely executed. The younger Mr. Woodfall has pitched on a particular Nobleman to have been the real author of those essays; but he neglected to give a *fac simile* of the hand-writing of that Nobleman. Mr. ALMON, a celebrated bookseller and publisher, in Piccadilly, London, for certain reasons which he has given, has announced that Mr. HUGH BOYD was the real and bona fide author of those Letters.

## M.

*Extracts from the FREEHOLDER, avowedly the production of Hugh Boyd, Esq.*

Every man who solicits public favour, *ipso facto*, submits himself to public trial. As the confidence of his country is the object, merit to his country should be the means: and he cannot hope to gain his suit, until his title be thoroughly examined. In the most vulgar instances this preliminary prevails. The bailiff who proposes to superintend your farm; the servant who petitions for a menial place in your family; produces credentials of good behaviour.—When, therefore, higher trusts are solicited, the foundations of confidence should be more deeply laid.—*Letter 3.*

The necessity of representation in Parliament, arises from the impossibility of assembling there collectively. Or, though this collective assemblage were possible, yet might we, for convenience, prefer the mode of acting by representatives: For a great advantage accrues from their capacity of discussing public affairs.—*Letter 5.*

A strong expression is made use of by *Dean Swift*, in his advice to the freemen of Dublin, in the choice of a representative. It is this: "Tell me not of 'your engagements and promises to another. Your 'promises were sins of *inconsideration*, at best; and 'you are bound to repent and annul them.' A promise is a voluntary declaration of a settled in-

tention; and always implies some real benefit to be conferred on the person to whom it is made. If any of those expedients be wanting, there is no promise; and, therefore, no obligation. For instance: If, involuntarily, I am forced to make a declaration to another, it does not bind me; for it is not mine: I am not bound to conform to words which a ruffian's pistol at my breast forces from my mouth; for they are his words, and not mine; and come to me only through the medium of his pistol. The intention must be settled and rational. For if I suddenly throw out absurd declarations, it is a duty to myself, as a rational being, to rectify them. The wild gusts of madness, or of intoxication, institute no claim on our sobered mind. Reason will resume her office, and vindicate her right to the fortress; which passion, or weakness, had taken by surprise. Some real benefit is to be conferred, or the obligation ceases. If I have undertaken to a man in a fever to feed his thirst with spirituous liquors; am I therefore, obliged to murder the delirious wretch? —Let us apply these observations to the giving of votes at elections. Are they always, entirely, voluntary? Are they always, *well-weighed intonations*? founded on a thorough discussion of the merits of the candidates, and under a conviction that no wortlier can arise? Do they, always, confer real, genuine advantage, on all candidates who solicit them? Or do they not, sometimes, feed the fever of corruption; and, in the general calamity of the constitution, destroy the very men whose impetuous delirium so greedily quaffs the poison?

## LETTER 8.

## HEALTH OF OUR CITIES.

At Baltimore, the number of deaths by fever, for the week ending on Friday morning last are stated to amount to 55; 23 more than the week preceding.

At New York only a few cases of malignant fever have occurred; though the disease is known to be in embryo, in certain wards.

A letter from New Orleans, dated Aug. 16, says the fever has commenced amongst the shipping.—On board the steamboat Alabama, the captain mate and stewart died in two days, and one man on board the Vesuvius. The physicians say that the yellow fever of this year is the most virulent they have ever seen. Report says 30 died on the 16th of August.

At Darien, Geo. the spotted fever prevails—out of a population of 129, 51 were infected.

At Charleston, 20 died of the fever, for the week ending on the 8th inst. the disease being chiefly limited to strangers.

Augusta, in Georgia, enjoys an uninterrupted state of good health.

WASHINGTON, Pa. Sept. 13.—The dysentery or bloody flux is now prevalent in some parts of this county. In the neighborhood of Canonsburg, particularly, we learn that it is very fatal, and if we are correctly informed, more than 80 persons have fell victims to it, within the space of two months.

Near Pittsburg, a similar disease prevails, with great mortality.

FROM BERMUDA. We have, this morning, received from Bermuda Correspondent, the *Bermuda Gazette* of the 21st ult and regret to learn that a disease, styled the Bilious Remittent fever, is raging in the town of St. George.